
Intellectual Exchange and the New Information Order of the Interwar Years: The British Society for International Bibliography, 1927–1937

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ABSTRACT

This article examines how the internationalism of the interwar years interacted with a growing concern for documentation and knowledge organization. To this end, it examines the work of the British Society for International Biography. The organization sought close links with British institutions but had pronounced transnational features: it championed the Universal Decimal Classification, collaborated with the International Institute of Bibliography in Brussels, and interacted with the League of Nations' bodies for intellectual cooperation. As a whole, the article shows how different actors sought to shape a new information order, yet it also traces the obstacles that they encountered.

The aftermath of the Great War saw a plethora of projects that aimed to redefine the very nature of international life. The foundation of the League of Nations was but one of these endeavors: far from the corridors of the Geneva institutions and diplomatic talk at international conferences, a variety of activists—from radical pacifists to communists—imagined a new global order. While the subsequent experience of fascism and war tends to overshadow the internationalism of the interwar period, it is important to acknowledge the latter's vibrancy. It was a period of “new intergovernmental forums that regenerated established transnational networks as well as creating new ones” (Clavin, 2011, p. 7). Daniel Gorman (2012, p. 3) has argued that “individual internationalist projects and the interconnections that developed among them constitute one of the striking features of the 1920s—the emergence of international society.” This impetus to reimagine and shape international life extended beyond the sphere of politics: it also encompassed the fields of cultural and scientific exchange. This is not to deny that the wartime antagonisms had

created manifold challenges for such cooperation (Schroeder-Gudehus, 1973; Crawford, 1992). Nonetheless, transnational intellectual bonds were fostered through a variety of schemes, including designated bodies within the League of Nations system (Laqua, 2011; Renoliet, 1999). Akira Iriye (1997, p. 51) has therefore suggested that “cultural internationalism came of age in the aftermath of World War I” and that “during the 1920s the movement flourished as it had never done before.”

At the intellectual level, the war did not only spur an interest in the ways to organize and transform international life. Both nationally and internationally, it highlighted the importance of information and documentation. As Dave Muddiman (2007b, p. 60) has pointed out, “the approaching end of World War I inaugurated a series of debates about the indispensability of scientific and technical information in a modern industrial state.” In the 1920s and 1930s, the classification and use of information were deemed vital for industrial growth and the consolidation of state power. The drive for classification and documentation cut across the political spectrum and could serve different political agendas. National Socialist Germany, for instance, maintained a Central Conference Office that used “the most up-to-date information technology and . . . expanded its holdings of documentation by plundering international organizations in occupied territories” (Herren, 2002, p. 68).

Ideas about information management intersected with visions of global order in manifold ways. Ronald Day (2001, p. 7) has pointed out that for its proponents, “documentation was understood as a player in the historical development of global organization in modernity.” Such views derived from a belief that the organization of knowledge would be a prerequisite for peaceful international relations. Paul Otlet—arguably the founding father of “documentation”—exemplified these intersections. Having launched his work for international bibliography during the 1890s, his subsequent activism was characterized by a far-reaching quest to organize the world (Rayward, 1975). H. G. Well’s promotion of a “World Brain” during the 1930s was another example, as it combined encyclopedism with a broader vision of global relations (Rayward, 1999 and 2008b). In light of such broader conceptions of classification and documentation, it is hardly surprising that information figured prominently in the work of the League of Nations. The different agencies of the League system were busy collecting and classifying material, from economic statistics to data on public health (Clavin, 2007).

This article explores these connections through a case study of the British Society for International Bibliography (BSIB)—an organization that has been described as “a think tank of scientific documentalists” (Muddiman, 2008, p. 210). Its history promises insights regarding the nature of the information order of the interwar years in several respects: on the one hand, its protagonists played a role in British debates on the efficiency

and centralization of information management. Yet on the other hand, the BSIB also maintained transnational links with individuals such as Otlet and sought to cooperate with the League of Nations. As a result, the case of the BSIB sheds light on the interplay between national and international scholarly cultures—in particular the networking that occurred both within and across them. To address these issues, this article breaks down into three major parts: it first sketches the foundation and features of the BSIB and then considers its relation with the International Institute of Bibliography (IIB) in Brussels and with the League of Nations' bodies for intellectual cooperation.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE BSIB

The BSIB's inaugural meeting took place in December 1927, with operations officially starting in 1928. The new association was to promote "the study of bibliographical methods and of the classification of information, to secure international unity of bibliographical procedure and classification and to foster the formation of comprehensive and specialist bibliographies."¹ The organizational heartland was South Kensington, the London district that hosted both the Science Museum and the Imperial College of Science, Technology and Medicine. The two driving forces behind the BSIB provided direct links to these institutions. The BSIB presidency was held by Samuel C. Bradford, who has been described as "the founding father of British documentation" (Black and Muddiman, 2007, p. 31). Bradford was Deputy Keeper (1925–1930) and later Keeper (1930–1937) of the Science Museum Library—an institution that was "the closest Britain had to a central resource for scientific and technical information" and "arguably . . . a National Science Library in all but name" (Muddiman, 2007a, pp. 59 and 62). During the 1920s and 1930s, he promoted the idea of centralizing information, as illustrated by his comment "that true economy and efficiency lies in the direction of developing the existing facilities of an existing general Science Library as a central library of sciences" (Bradford, 1935, p. 17). Meanwhile, the BSIB's vice-president was based at Imperial College: A. F. C. Pollard held a chair in Instrument Design at the institution's Department of Technical Optics. However, he combined his scholarly commitment with his identity as "a tireless campaigner for the internationalisation of knowledge" (Muddiman, 2007b, p. 91).

The BSIB presented itself as an information hub for British documentation, proposing "to act as a central clearing house in this country for matters concerning classification, to receive criticisms of existing schemes, suggestions for improvements, and so on." In order to perform this role, it sought the "membership of all who are interested in classification references to scientific papers."² Personal contacts were an important factor in this context: for instance, Bradford persuaded staff members of the Science Library to join the new association (Gosset, 1977, p. 175).

However, to perform its role successfully, the BSIB also had to seek institutional partners. While by 1932, individual membership stood at the modest number of thirty-one, the BSIB could also point at eleven institutional members, including the Bodleian Library in Oxford and the Imperial Agricultural Bureaux.³

As indicated by its name, the BSIB's outlook was international. A key feature of this orientation was its championing of the Universal Decimal Classification (UDC). As a classification system, the UDC had been the result of a transnational transfer in its own right: the Belgians Paul Otlet and Henri La Fontaine had developed it on the basis of the scheme that Melvil Dewey had created in the United States. When Otlet and La Fontaine launched their project, they understood it as part of an attempt to organize knowledge on a global scale. This ambition was exemplified by their creation of the Universal Bibliographic Repertory—a catalogue that used the UDC to gather “the totality of human knowledge” on index cards (La Fontaine and Otlet, 1895, p. 6). Long before the foundation of the BSIB, Otlet and La Fontaine had sought to promote their work in Britain—yet their relations to bodies such as the Royal Society of London had proven fractious (Laqua, 2009, pp. 253–257; Fuchs, 2004).

In contrast, Bradford and Pollard supported the UDC with great enthusiasm. Bradford (1928, p. 8) praised the classification as “a powerful tool of bibliographical research worthy of universal recognition.” He therefore appealed “to all those who have at heart the progress of science and invention to unite in a common effort for unlocking the vast storehouse of recorded information for the benefit of mankind with a master-key formed by the use of the Brussels Classification for all bibliographical work.” Meanwhile, Pollard had translated parts of the UDC into English on behalf of the Optical Society, which used the Decimal Classification for bibliographic notices on optical physics in its *Transactions*. In the introduction to this publication, Pollard (1926, p. v) deplored the “almost total ignorance of the Brussels Bibliographical Decimal Classification in this country.” One of the initial steps for the BSIB was therefore to disseminate information about the classification. To this end, the society established a joint committee with the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (ASLIB).⁴ This initiative was significant in several respects: it marked a partnership at a time when many practitioners viewed librarianship and documentation as separate disciplines (Black and Muddiman, 2007, pp. 42–43). Furthermore, for the BSIB, the collaboration opened up links to other institutions: its partner had 220 corporate members in 1927, a number that by 1932 had risen to 400. ASLIB's decision to provide its members with information on “the adoption and use of the Universal Decimal Classification” therefore offered real opportunities.⁵ Yet ASLIB also benefited: because of the BSIB's transnational links, the partnership resulted

in the “almost instant creation of an international profile” (Muddiman, 2007b, p. 91).

In 1930, the joint committee launched a survey among ASLIB’s member institutions. They were asked about the material they collected or indexed; whether there was a uniform basis for classification; what classification system(s) they used; and whether they were acquainted with the UDC.⁶ Judging from the documented responses, around ninety libraries and specialized institutions answered, with about one-third using a decimal classification, either Dewey or the UDC. One-third said that they knew of the UDC’s existence but considered it inappropriate for their purposes, while the rest professed ignorance about the scheme.⁷ The institutions that were unaware of or critical about the UDC received follow-up letters, explaining the virtues of that classification scheme. However, it soon became clear that more people would be convinced only if a full translation of the UDC into English existed.⁸ As a result, ASLIB and BSIB launched the project of a complete English translation, which began in 1936 and resulted in the publication of five volumes.

THE BSIB AND THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF BIBLIOGRAPHY

From the outset, the BSIB sought close links with the UDC’s mother organization, the International Institute of Bibliography in Brussels. This was underlined by its occasional use of a second name: “British Section of the International Institute of Bibliography.”⁹ The Brussels institute had older partner institutions in Zurich, Paris, and The Hague, yet Pollard had a broader vision: in 1928, he proposed “to establish daughter-societies of the *Institut International de Bibliographie* in various countries of the world”—a step that, as he pointed out, was compatible with the statutes of the organization.¹⁰ The project of internationalizing the Brussels-based body had evident advantages: branches such as the BSIB opened up new institutional contacts and could help to spread the UDC. Furthermore, the specific scientific expertise at Imperial College and the Science Museum Library meant that the BSIB could contribute to the refinement of UDC, which at this stage was coordinated by the International Committee of the Decimal Classification at The Hague.

The result was the growth of a transnational network of specialists. For instance, from the very start, the BSIB corresponded with Donker Duyvis, the secretary of the committee at The Hague.¹¹ In 1929, the Science Museum Library agreed to act as a designated subject center of the International Institute of Bibliography, taking charge of scientific and technological questions.¹² The BSIB was subsequently entrusted with developing UDC subsections for pure and applied sciences.¹³ Meanwhile, the BSIB could present its involvement in this network as an asset vis-à-vis potential

members: for instance, Pollard pointed out that Duyvis's home institution—the Netherlands Institute for Documentation and Filing—provided useful resources such as a patent directory.¹⁴

By 1930, a document compiled by the BSIB highlighted that the growth of the International Institute of Bibliography was mirrored by the spread of the UDC: it listed twenty countries in which the classification was used. In terms of the number of institutions who had taken up the institution, Britain came top of the list (28), followed by France (22), Netherlands (19), Germany (18), and the Soviet Union (17).¹⁵ Evidently, such numbers need to be approached with caution, both in light of potential national bias and variables in the information flow. Nonetheless, the list clearly showed that the UDC had ventured far beyond its Belgian cradle. Indeed, Hungary (16), Switzerland (16), and Norway (15) counted more UDC institutions than Belgium (14). While seeking to contribute to the spread of the classification, the BSIB also defended it against external challenges: for instance, it supported the International Institute of Bibliography in rebutting attempts by the Dewey Classification's personnel to impose their ideas with regard to the harmonization of the two decimal systems.¹⁶ Even beyond the field of classification, the BSIB contributed to the International Institute of Bibliography. Pollard himself had been involved in its work even before the foundation of BSIB and, shortly afterwards, became the first non-Belgian president of the institute.¹⁷ Furthermore, as early as 1928, the BSIB and the Brussels institute organized a small international conference at Imperial College. Ten years later, a second conference took place at Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford, this time on a much larger scale under the chairmanship of Sir William Bragg, the president of the Royal Society.

Although the BSIB's lifespan was limited, its activities illustrate the transformation of the Brussels institute, with a growing role for national branches. Such affiliates promoted the UDC nationally, established contacts to specialized institutions in their country, and participated in the organization's international congresses. Individuals such as Pollard and Bradford played a leading role in the International Institute, even if Pollard's presidency of the institute ended in 1931. Moreover, the protagonists of the BSIB also absorbed the notions and language that had nourished the work of the IIB's Belgian founders. This was reflected when S. S. Bullock, ASLIB's secretary-general, described the UDC as "a system embracing the complete range of knowledge,"¹⁸ or when Sir Frederic Nathan of ASLIB proposed a "comprehensive world scheme, covering all scientific and technical literature."¹⁹ Similarly, the draft of a BSIB committee member echoed the language of Otlet and La Fontaine:

With the continuous growth in range, volume, and complexity of information in every department of human knowledge, grows also the need for guidance as to where to seek it. This can only be furnished

by a complete bibliography. . . . The attempt, to be successful, must be world wide and must be based on a uniform system of classification of universal application.²⁰

THE BSIB AND THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

Any attempt to promote documentation at an international level could not ignore the League of Nations. This was even more so the case for the International Institute of Bibliography, as its founders Otlet and La Fontaine had long combined their bibliographic work with broader aspirations to organize international life. In La Fontaine's case, this dimension had already become manifest in the 1880s, when he helped establish the Belgian Arbitration and Peace Society. He subsequently emerged as a key figure in international pacifism, acknowledged by a Nobel Peace Prize in 1913. Furthermore, as cofounders of the Central Office of International Institutions (1907) and the Union of International Associations (1910), Otlet and La Fontaine were committed to building up structures for international life. This prewar commitment also explains why after the outbreak of war, both Belgians published treatises that outlined the potential structure of a world organization (Otlet, 1914; La Fontaine, 1916). Once the war had ended, they campaigned to make Belgium the site of the League of Nations and were dismayed when Geneva was chosen instead (Laqua, 2013, p. 28). They subsequently called for the creation of an intellectual branch of the League, as such a body had not been planned by its founding fathers. The creation of the League's International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation (1922) and the inauguration of its International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation (1926) seemed to mark the fulfilment of such designs. However, neither Otlet nor La Fontaine was appointed to the International Committee, and the International Institute was established in Paris rather than Brussels.

Despite their frustrations, the Belgians welcomed the opportunities that the new international structures provided. After all, the League's bodies for intellectual cooperation expressed an interest in documentation and classification. For instance, the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation maintained a subcommittee on bibliographic matters, and the Section for Scientific Relations within the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation viewed bibliography as part of its remit (IICI, 1946, p. 28). In light of these overlapping interests, there were several instances of collaboration between Otlet, La Fontaine, and the League. For instance, the latter founded a compilation of resolutions passed by international association—a project launched by Otlet and La Fontaine's Union of International Associations (UIA, 1970, p. 31). Furthermore, in 1924 the League of Nations Assembly approved a convention with the International Institute of Bibliography. The document promised League patronage for Otlet and La Fontaine's institute. In return, the Belgians

agreed to provide bibliographical services, in particular the preparation of a printed catalogue of books and articles on bibliography and intellectual cooperation: the *Index Bibliographicus*.²¹ Based on the report of two commissions, the League Assembly promised financial support for the *Index*.²²

Hence, the collaboration between the International Institute of Bibliography and the League of Nations preceded the foundation of the BSIB by several years. This was not only a matter of conviction but born out of necessity: between 1922 and 1924, the relationship between the Brussels institute and the Belgian government had soured. This was a problem because the Universal Bibliographic Repertory as well as related ventures depended on space that the Belgian government had previously provided. As Otlet and La Fontaine had to vacate parts of their *Palais Mondial*—at least temporarily—they considered moving their card catalogue to another city. Geneva was the preferred choice, reflecting the hope that the catalogue could be attached to the League of Nations. Meanwhile, the American Library Association displayed an interest in saving the Repertory.²³ The American organization promised to “conduct the compilation of the universal bibliographical repertory for five years, the time judged necessary to see European affairs well settled.”²⁴ In their turn, the U.S. librarians corresponded with the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, discussing whether the League could subsidize this project.²⁵

These efforts, however, came to nothing because in the meantime, relations between Otlet and La Fontaine on the one side and the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation on the other had also taken a turn for the worse. The preparation of the *Index Bibliographicus* had experienced several delays—and when the volume was eventually published, Otlet and La Fontaine distanced themselves from the result. The correspondence between the Belgian bibliographers and League officials became increasingly tense.²⁶ Owing to these conflicts, the convention with the League of Nations was never fully implemented—and the prospect of gaining League backing for the Universal Bibliographic Repertory became increasingly slim. The BSIB joined the debate on the catalogue’s future soon after its foundation: it expressed the view that “the best place for the Universal Bibliographical Repertory is at a library of a city such as Paris, London, Berlin or Rome.” It also estimated that the cost would be around 2,000 pounds per year and offered London as a site.²⁷

The diversification and internationalization of the Brussels venture—with the BSIB as a key component—helped to improve relations with the League of Nations. Staff at the League’s International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation noted the growing role of the British bibliographers with approval. In a note to his director, the head of its Section for Scientific Relations summarized a conversation with Pollard, the president-designate of the Institute of International Bibliography. The League official

expressed his hope that relations would improve under Pollard chairmanship.²⁸ Pollard himself sought to push one of the IIB's key objectives by pointing out that

the only means of securing bibliographical cooperation is by means of a standard classification. Whatever else the *Institut International de Bibliographie* has done, it has at least produced a universal classification, which has been proved by use during a quarter of a century to be suitable for indexing literature of all kinds in the greatest detail.²⁹

Pollard's BSIB colleague Samuel Bradford also stressed the importance of promoting a unified classification scheme while distancing himself from the Institute's founders: "I agree that Otlet and La Fontaine are delightful personally but lacking in tact. One of the difficulties is that they are the authors of the only really practical system of international bibliography and have spent all they have upon the scheme."³⁰ Such statements reflected the ambition to continue the work of the Brussels institute even if it meant to marginalize its founders. This line of argument did not only come from Britain: the Dutch bibliographer Donker Duyvis echoed these feelings, claiming that the "most important work is done in England, Germany and the Netherlands."³¹ At the time, Duyvis and Pollard fostered relations with the League, meeting with its Committee on Library Experts in 1930 (Rayward, 1975, pp. 323–324). Their involvement seems to have had a positive impact: in 1932 and 1933, the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation sent representatives to the international bibliographical congresses for which it had previously declined invitations.³²

In the face of external challenges, the British, Dutch, and Belgian bibliographers could still join forces. For instance, they were united in their criticism of a competing initiative by Jean Gérard, director of the Maison de la Chimie in Paris and founder of the Union Française des Offices de Documentation. In the early 1930s, Gérard promoted his plan for a new documentation office and attracted League interest in this venture. Bradford was unenthusiastic about this project. As he pointed out, Gérard had refused to cooperate and was in the process of creating "rivals" to both the UDC and the Brussels institute. Bradford also criticized the *Guide internationale de Documentation* that the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation prepared in response to Gérard's initiative. In particular, he pointed out that the publication did not acknowledge the work undertaken by the Brussels institute and that it did not "not mention the B.S.I.B., the Information Centre at the Science Library or describe the Decimal Classification."³³ Such statements reflected wider tensions: seen in its broader context, it is evident that the Guide "provided a focus for the passions that, over a period of several years, had gathered around a number of organizations and technical matters of documentation" (Rayward, 1983, p. 261).

EPILOGUE

Boyd Rayward (2008a, p. 8) has pointed out that the early history of the information society introduces us to people who “were committed in their different ways to a pervasive modernist belief in rationality, planning, standardization, mechanization, the value of the scientific method and the ideal—if not the inevitability—of scientific and social progress.” The protagonists of the BSIB were among these individuals. Yet their work also shows us the boundaries that such a belief could encounter: be they personal, institutional, and national. The BSIB was absorbed by ASLIB in 1937. Evidently, the organization continued its work for bibliography, and there were clear continuities between its undertakings and the subsequent history of the “information society before the computer” (Black and Muddiman, 2007). Yet 1937 also marks an appropriate terminus in another respect: in August that year, Paris was the site of a Universal Documentation Congress—an event that coincided with the *Exposition Internationale des Arts et Techniques dans la Vie Moderne*. The event brought together key figures of the documentation movement, including Otlet, Gérard, Bradford, and H. G. Wells, who presented his “World Brain” project on this occasion. Indeed, Bradford and Pollard had corresponded with Wells prior to the congress, informing him of their own work (Rayward, 2008b, pp. 234–235). These links continued in the subsequent year, as Wells addressed the documentation conference in Oxford.

Seen from one angle, the Paris congress seemed to echo the optimistic narratives that had characterized the intertwined discourse on internationalism and documentation. However, the discussions took place in an era characterized by intense nationalisms and the spectre of war. Indeed, the idea of information at the service of the nation underpinned some contributions in Paris. Hugo Krüss—the director of the Prussian State Library and a former member of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation—discussed “how we dominate over knowledge.” While he spoke of “new relations between men which are constantly becoming closer,” he linked this development to the “extension of public administration in all countries” and hence to a process in which nations played a major role.³⁴ Krüss had previously been involved in both the Brussels institute and the League’s work for intellectual cooperation—yet by the time of the Paris congress, he was a cultural official in Nazi Germany. Given the wider political context, it is possible to regard the world’s fair of 1937 as the manifestation of an internationalist vision that seemed increasingly imperilled. As Jay Winter (2006, p. 76) has put it, the exhibition of 1937 “provided less a description or a destination than a critical point at which the contradictions of the time were exposed.” The quest for an international information order reflected these contradictions: groups such as the BSIB viewed documentation as part of a wider endeavor to order the world. However, in pursuing this aim, they had to operate on different

scales—personal, institutional, national, and international. By the late 1930s, it had become difficult to reconcile their competing demands.

NOTES

1. Rules of the British Society for International Bibliography, box 1, folder 3, papers of the British Society for International Bibliography (henceforth: *MS BSIB*), Science Museum Library London.
2. Letter to Albert Agricultural College, Glasnevin, Dublin, 28 January 1928, box 1, folder 4, *MS BSIB*.
3. List of Members as at 1st March 1932, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
4. N° 812: Angleterre. ASLIB in *IIB Bulletin*, no. 37 (18 October 1929), as featured in box 1, folder 4, *MS BSIB*.
5. Frederic L. Nathan, Memorandum on International Abstracting and Classifying of Scientific and Technical Literature (May 1930), box 2, folder 8, *MS BSIB*.
6. Letter of ASLIB and BSIB, 10 September 1930, box 1, folder 6, *MS BSIB*.
7. *MS BSIB*, responses in box 1, folder 6 and box 2, folder 9.
8. S. S. Bullock, Notes on Development of the Committee's Work, 5 May 1933, box 1, folder 2, *MS BSIB*.
9. Report of the Council – December 1928, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
10. I. I. B. document no. 156, October 1928 (VIIe Conférence Bibliographique Internationale. Cologne, 17 et 18 septembre 1928), pp. 10–11, as featured in box 1, folder 4, *MS BSIB*.
11. Council Meeting (18 October 1928), box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
12. Minutes of the Council Meeting held at the Science Library, South Kensington, on Wednesday, 11th December, 1929, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
13. Annual Report for the Year Ending December 31st 1930, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
14. Letter, undated, by BSIB, signed A. F. C. Pollard, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
15. Nathan, Memorandum, appendix B (see endnote 5).
16. Council Meeting (5 June 1930) and Council Meeting (17 July 1930), box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
17. The British Society for International Bibliography, Leaflet, c. 1928, box 1, folder 3, *MS BSIB*.
18. Bullock, The UDC and the Specialist's Objection that his material is scattered in the Manual, handwritten note, 1931/1932, box 1, folder 2, *MS BSIB*.
19. Nathan, Memorandum (see endnote 5).
20. As included in box 1, folder 2, *MS BSIB*.
21. Convention entre l'IIB et la Société des Nations, *IIB Bulletin*, July 1924. See also La Société des Nations et l'Institut international de Bibliographie. Note N° 692 – 1925.01-25, in 'L'IIB et la SDN – Communications IIB', in *Fonds Fédération Internationale de Documentation (FID) I*, 'Les institutions et leur activités. L'I.I.B. (1905–1930)', Mundaneum, Mons.
22. La Société des Nations et l'Institut international de Bibliographie. Correspondance échangée récemment: 1) Lettre du Secrétaire Général de la Société des Nations, Sir Eric Drummond, Genève, le 7 novembre 1924 (note no. 692 – 1925.01.25), in *Fonds Fédération Internationale de Documentation (FID) I*, 'Les institutions et leur activités. L'I.I.B. (1905–1930)'.
23. American Library Association, *Annual Reports 1923–4. Saratoga Springs Conference June 30–July 5, 1924* (Chicago, 1924), in D.VIII, 13a (Bibliographie-Documentation: 13a. Institut de Documentation), papers of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation (henceforth: *MS IICI*), UNESCO Archives, Paris.
24. ALA Committee Report, 17 September 1926, DVIII, 13a, *MS IICI*.
25. See e.g., letters of Ernest Richardson to Albert Zimmern, December 29 1925; May 15, 1926; June 28, 1926; extrait d'un lettre de M. Zimmern, octobre 1926, DVIII, 13a, *MS IICI*.
26. See exchange of letters between J. E. De Vos van Stijnweek, George Oprescu (secretary of the International Committee on Intellectual Cooperation), and Julien Luchaire (director of the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation) between February 6 and March 16, 1926, in DVIII, 13a, *MS IICI*.
27. Letter July 2 1928, IIB Publication no. 156. (Octobre 1928 : VIIe Conférence Bibliographique Internationale. Cologne (Pressa) 17 et 18 septembre 1928), in box 1, folder 4, *MS BSIB*.

28. "Extrait d'une note à Monsieur le Directeur, 1927," in DVIII, 13a. *MS IICI*.
29. Pollard to de Vos, January 21, 1930, in DVIII, 13a. *MS IICI*.
30. Bradford to Murray, August 22, 1928, in DVIII, 13a. *MS IICI*.
31. Donker Duyvis to de Vos, January 17, 1929, in DVIII, 13a. *MS IICI*.
32. See letter of Henri Bonnet to Paul Otlet, July 7, 1932; letter of Henri Bonnet to Paul Otlet, June 29, 1933, both in DVIII, 13a. *MS IICI*.
33. S. C. Bradford, The World Conference on Universal Documentation. Confidential, box 1, folder 5, *MS BSIB*.
34. Hugo Krüss, How we dominate over knowledge (Congrès Mondial de la Documentation Universelle. Paris, August 16–21, 1937), box 1, folder 1, *MS BSIB*.

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